GENDER POST-2015

GENDER IN THE POST-2015 DEVELOPMENT AGENDA



PROCEEDINGS OF THE GENDER IN THE POST-2015 DEVELOPMENT AGENDA CONFERENCE.

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Out of about 120 abstracts received, 74 full papers were submitted and these papers were subjected to another peer review process. The review comments were sent to the authors of submitted papers with the request that they should address all of the issues raised by the reviewers. Tracked changes made by reviewers on authors' original papers were also sent to authors to help with revising their papers. It was ensured that during the peer review process, members of the paper review committee, editors and conference organisers were not involved with the review of any paper they authored or co-authored.

Only 62 authors satisfactorily responded to the reviewers comments. It is these papers that are included in these proceedings.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

		PAGES
KEYNOTE SPEAKERS		**11-14**
SECTION ONE	**GENDER, GOVERNANCE AND CONFLICT**	**15-80**
1.1	**Female Traditional Rulers in Africa:** A Comparison of Nigeria, Ghana and the Republic Of Benin F. A. Olasupo,	**16-23**
1.2	**Ethnicity, Governance And Gendered Politics in Nigeria's** Fourth Republic: An Appraisal Godwin Ihemeje.	**24-34**
1.3	**Panacea for the Plights of African Female Refugees** Ruth Abiola Adimula	**35-43**
1.4	**Gender Issues and Boko Haram Insurgency in Nigeria** Joan Mbagwu1 and Anne Alaiyemola2	**44-51**
1.5	**Local Parties and Women's Representation In Politics in Ondo and Osun States In Nigeria** Olukemi Aluko (Ph.D), Oluwatobi Ojo Adeyemi and John Etebom	**52-58**
1.6	**Strengthening National Mechanisms for Gender the Equality Project: Issues and Challenges for Post-2015 Development Agenda** Olakayode K. O	**59-67**
1.7	**Gender Issues In Governance And Politics In Nigeria Post2015: What Legal And Institutional Imperatives?** Jade Mohammed	**68-73**
1.8	**Women of Value, Men of Honor: Examining Gender Politics in Nigerian Socio-Political Sphere.** Olujide Gbadegesin	**74-80**
SECTION TWO	**GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE**	**81-126**
2.1	**The Impact of Domestic Violence Against Women on Students Academic Performance as Perceived by Primary School teachers in Osun State** Yusuf F.A (PhD) and Yinusa R.O	**82-88**
2.2	**Prevalence and Factors Associated With Sexual Violence among Adolescents within a Tertiary Institution in Ile-Ife, Osun State, Nigeria** Adedigba Babatunde, Bello Bamidele, Mapayi Boladale, Mobolaji Wale, Umweni Uwa, Adenipekun Adebisi, Faniku Ayokunle, Fatusi Adesegun	**89-96**
2.3	**Gendered Violence, Gendered Suffering and Human Trafficking In Online and Offline Communities** Akinleye Temitope	**97-102**
2.4	**Human Trafficking and the Harvest of Baby Factories: The Nigerian Experience** Shina Alimi and Otori Blessing	**103-110**
2.5	**The Prevalence and Nature Of Sexual Victimisation among female Senior Secondary School Adolescents In Ogun State, Nigeria** Akinnawo E. Olutope & Akpunne Bede C	**110-118**

2.6	**Domestic Violence Factors Influencing Women's Mental health in Ibadan Metropolis, Nigeria** D. Oladeji	119-126
SECTION THREE	**GENDER, BUSINESS AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP**	127-185
3.1	**The Impact of Gender on Business-Related Knowledge of Small-Scale Manufacturing Firms In Lagos State, Nigeria** Olaposi, Titilayo Olubunmi, Oyebola, Abiodun Isaac and Akintelu, Sunday Olufemi	128-137
3.2	**Can They Eat Their Cake And Still Have It: Key Success Factors for Women's Entrepreneurship** Isaac Oluwajoba Aberejo, Funmilayo Juliana Afolabi and Temitope Favour Jiboye	138-147
3.3	**The Impact of Gender on The Entrepreneurial Start-Up Activities of Obafemi Awolowo University Students** Olaposi, T. O., Binuyo, G. O., and Ayanlade, O. S.	148-156
3.4	**Tourism Entrepreneurship and Women's Livelihood Assets in Host Communities in Abeokuta Ogun State, Nigeria** Oyebisi Bakare and Olubanjo Arowoogun	157-162
3.5	**Economics of Leafy Vegetable Production and Marketing among Peri-Urban Women in Osun State, Nigeria** O. A., Ladoye A. F Afolayan, T. O.Ojo	163-169
3.6	**Entrepreneurship Mainstream in Nigeria: The Gender Agenda** Adebowale Biodun Areo	170-176
3.7	**Determinants of Access to Capital among Female Micro and Small Scale Agro-Allied Entrepreneurs in Osun State, Nigeria** A. F. Afolayan, O. A. Ladoye, T.F. Jiboye, and M.O. Akinyosoye	177-185
SECTION FOUR	**GENDER, EDUCATION AND RESEARCH**	186-230
4.1	**Gender Responses of Secondary School Students on Career choice In Science And Technology in Ibadan, Oyo State** Subuola B. Fasoyiro, Michael O. Oyelakin, John P. Alimi, Kafayat O. Zaka , Alice O. Ajani, Abosede O. Oduntan, Abiodun A. Olapade, Elizabeth O. Farinde, Sunday O. Osunbitan, Elizabeth A. Ejigbo, Folashade O. Adeboyejo, Funmilayo F. Ilesanmi, Michael O. Afolabi	187-193
4.2	**Gender and Test Response Aberrance of Secondary School Students in Mathematics in Ondo State** Oluwatoyin Agbotoba and E. B. Kolawole	194-201
4.3	**Gender Analysis of Knowledge and Usage of Clothing Labels among Students of Tertiary Institutions** Soyebo, K. O., Diyaolu, I. J., and Abaniwu M.	202-208
4.4	**Organisational Support, Commitment and Capacity Building: Catalysts for Enhancing Productivity of Female Researchers' In Nigeria** Oluwakemi E. Fapojuwo and Olajumoke Adeyeye	209-217
4.5	**Research for Development: Gender Analysis Of R&D Personnel in Nigerian Research Institutes** A.D. Adeyeye, O.B. Oluwatope and F.S. Aremu	218-225

4.6 **Gender Bias in Girl-Child Education: Domains and Cultural contexts in Owerri Metropolis, Imo State, Nigeria** 226-230
N. N. Akueshi1 and Nixon Udeji2

SECTION FIVE GENDER, HEALTH AND REPRODUCTION 231-303

5.1 **Gender and Age of Selected Anthropometric Measures for Obesity among Children and Adolescents in Ile-Ife, Nigeria** 232-241
Olubusola Esther Johnson, Chidozie Emmanuel Mobada, Damilola Yetunde Alao, and Chinonye Oluchi Nweke

5.2 **African Botanicals and Menopause: A Review** 242-247
Odimegwu, Joy I.

5.3 **Maternal Mortality in Nigeria: A Review** 248-255
Oladoyinbo C.A. And Akinbule O.O

5.4 **Attitudes and Fertility Behaviour Among Married Women in Nigeria** 256-265
Olufunmilayo Banjo and Olusina Bamiwuye

5.5 **Medicalization of Gendered Bodies and Ethics** 266-271
A.I. Irinoye,. O.A. Okunola,. O.A. Ajayi, M.I. Fasasi and Kolawole T. O.

5.6 **The Prevalence of Sexual Activities And Health Outcomes among Female Secondary School Students in Ibadan, Nigeria** 272-279
C. O Moughalu and F. M Afolabi

5.7 **Verbal Imprudence, Sexuality and Cultural Values in Selected Traditional Drug Advertisements in South western Nigeria** 280-290
O?láté?jú Mojí. A

5.8 **Adoption And Use of Family Planning Devices In Nigeria** 291-303
O.E. Ilevbare, , I.O. Ogundari, And O.B. Oluwatope

SECTION SIX GENDER, AGRICUTURE, ENVIRONMENT AND TECHNOLOGY 304-393

6.1 **Reducing Malnutrition: A Qualitative Assessment of Women's Kundi Sales in Oyo State** 305-305
Fakolade Patience Olusola

6.2 **Animal Agriculture As A Viable Tool For Women's Empowerment** 309-314
O. O. Alabi, I. O.Adejumo, and A.O. Ajala,

6.3 **Productivity Differentials of Improved Rice Variety Adoption Among Male And Female Headed Households In Ekiti State, Nigeria** 315-320
Oluwafunmilola Felicia Adesiyan , Adewumi Titus Adesiyan , Olufemi. Adedotun Yesufu and Oluwaseyi Akinola

6.4 **Gender Dimensions Of Decision-Making on Yam and Cassava Peels in Rural Households in Southwest, Nigeria** 321-328
Adeuyi, O.O. & Abdulsalam-Saghir, P.B.

6.5 **Effects of Religious Activities on Rural Women's Involvement in Agriculture in Ife/Ijesa Senatorial District, Osun State, Nigeria** 329-339
H. F. B. Faborode

6.6	**Measuring Women's Technical Efficiency and Profitability in Waterleaf (Taliumtriangulare) Enterprise in Ondo State Nigeria** Tanimonure V. O., Afolayan A. F. and Oluwole T.S.	340-347
6.7	**Evaluating the Participation and Productivity of Female Poultry Farmers in Iwo Local Government Area State of Osun Nigeria** Aderemi Foluke, Alabi Olufemi, Fawehinmi Olabisi And Ajumobi Adedotun	348-354
6.8	**Evaluatiing The Iron and Copper Contents of Solanecio Biafrae, Telfaria Occidentalis, Solanum Macrocarpon And Solanum Scabrum As A Means Of Improving Women's** Contibution To Food Security in Southwest Nigeria Idowu M. K., Oyedele, D. J., Tenabe O. E1., Adekunle, O. K.	355-364
6.9	**The Impact of Climate Change on The Livelihood of Female Fisher folks in Some Parts of the South Western Coast of Nigeria** Mabel Ipinmoroti	365-371
6.10	**Gender Use of Integrated Adaptation Strategies for Climate Change: Options for Sustainable Environment in the Savannah Zone of Oyo State, Nigeria** E. O. Bamigboye, and I. O. Oladosu,	372-377
6.11	**The World of Ecological Crises and the Feminine Gender: Issues Challenges and Directions** O. E. Dada, O. O. Awotoye,Z. O. Ojekunle, B. T. Amujo, N. J. Akpan	378-385
6.12	**Gender Issues in the Development Agenda: Rural Women's Experience in Agricultural Commercialisation in Nigeria** Mojirayo Afolabi	386-393
SECTION SEVEN	**GENDER, CULTURE AND THE ARTS**	**393-444**
7.1	**Analysis Of Yorùbá Worldview On The Organs of The Female Human Body** J.A. Ò?fé?fèyítìmí	394-398
7.2	**Confronting the New Challenges in Feminism in African Literature within the Context of Globalization** Kemi Wale-Olaitan	399-405
7.3	**Representation of Gender Bias and Inequality in Selected Christian Home Video Films** Mobolaji Oyebisi Ajibade	406-411
7.4	**The Prosecution of the Female Body in Colonial Configurations of Marlen Haushofer's Die Wand** Jakob Maché	412-422
7.5	**The Performing Arts and The Task of Engendering Reactions Against the Iniquity of Gender Inequity** J. A Afolabi	423-428
7.6	**?kunrin L'ada, Obinrin L'agba, (Men Are Cutlasses; Women Are Senior (Superior): A Radical Feminist Sociological Overview of Gendered Metaphorical Sayings in Yoruba Religion and Culture** Bolaji Olukemi Bateye	429-437
7.7	**Snail-Sense Strategies for Women Emancipation in Promise Okekwe's Trilogy** Olushola, Ayodeji Akanmode	438-444

SECTION EIGHT	**GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT**	**445-501**
8.1	**Gender, Stomach Infrastructure and Development in Nigeria** R.A. Asiyanbola	**446-451**
8.2	**Women's Empowerment in Nigeria: History, Actions, Opportunities and Challenges** Morenikeji Grace Asaaju and Lohna Bonkat	**452-459**
8.3	**Women, Society and Development in Nigeria: Interrogating the Causes, Courses and Clogs** Beatrice Amili Akubor 1 and Akubor Emmanuel Osewe2	**460-468**
8.4.	**Gender and Rural Transport Disadvantage of the Elderly in Selected Rural Communities of Oyo State, Nigeria** Popoola Kehinde Olayinka	**469-475**
8.5	**Indigenous Arts, Gender, and Sustainable Development** Areo, Margaret Olugbemisola,	**476-481**
8.6	**Single Parenting in Ekiti State: Causes and Coping Strategies** M.A.B. Fakorede	**482-486**
8.7	**Effects of Spatial Factors on the Choice of Livelihood Activities of Male and Female Headed Rural Farm Families in Osun State, Nigeria** T. F. Ojo	**487-493**
8.8	**The Impact of the Utilization of Health Care Services on the Livelihood of Rural Women in Ife South Local Government Area, Osun State, Nigeria.** F.O. Adereti, A. F. Awodire I. O, Ibitunde	**494-500**



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She has lectured extensively, and taught workshops and master-classes on curriculum transformation in the areas of gender, race, multi-cultural, and African diaspora studies. She is co-editor, with Stanlie James, of Theorizing Black Feminisms: The Visionary Pragmatism of Black Women, has published numerous articles on Black Women's Literature and Colonial Discourse, and has edited other volumes on African literature. She is currently completing Circumstantial Embodiements: Essays on Identity, Community and Race on Three Continents. She is also coordinated, with Tuzyline Jita Allan, and Florence Howe of the Feminist Press, Women Writing Africa, (2003-2009) a multi-volume continent wide project of cultural reconstruction which aims to illuminate for a broad public the neglected centuries long history and culture of African women, who have shaped and been shaped by their families, societies, and nations.

Abena Busia has given numerous interviews and readings on radio, and has read and performed at conferences, universities, churches and poetry and Jazz festivals in Europe, North America, and West Africa, including the distinguished New Orleans Jazz Festival. She has also given one woman theater presentations at the Crossroads Theater Festival in New Brunswick NJ, and the William Grant Still Cultural Center in Los Angeles CA. In June of 1990 she was honoured by being asked, by Mayor Tom Bradley of Los Angeles, to participate in the welcoming ceremonies for Nelson Mandela on the steps of City Hall.

Her poetry also has been published in various magazines on three continents, in West Africa, North America, and Europe. She has poems also in several anthologies including Summer Fires, New Poetry From Africa (Heinemann, 1983), MandelaAmandla, A Seventieth Birthday Tribute to Nelson Mandela, (Three Continents Press, 1989), Daughters of Africa: Three Thousand Years of African Womens Writings, (Random House, 1992) Poetry International 7/8, (San Diego Univ Press, 2003-4) and Halala Madiba: Mandela in Poetry (Flame Books 2006). Her first volume of poems, Testimonies of Exile containing the three poem cycles "Exiles", "Incantations for Mawu's Daughter's", and "Altar Call" was published by Africa World Press, Trenton NJ, in March 1990, and her latest, Traces of a Life, by Ayebia Books, London UK in October 2008.

PANACEA FOR THE PLIGHTS OF AFRICAN FEMALE REFUGEES

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ABSTRACT

One of the biggest direct consequences of armed conflict is the creation of refugees and Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) with poor living conditions and diverse Gender-Based Violence (GBV). To prevent refugees against GBV, a number of response mechanisms are prescribed by the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR). The objectives of the study were to: examine the preventive, protective and punitive measures against GBV; investigate; and evaluate GBV being faced by camp residents, especially female refugees. The study adopted a descriptive survey design, with quantitative and qualitative tools to elicit data. Purposive sampling of 578 respondents in two selected camps in West Africa namely: Oru Refugee camp Nigeria and Budumburam Refugee camp, Ghana was conducted. The research instruments were questionnaire, focused group discussion, and key informants interview guide. The findings of the study were that: more female faced GBV in camps- male (40.1%) female (59.9%); UNHCR benchmark expected in camps for basic welfare of the refugees not fully provided; and perpetrators of GBV in camps were not punished effectively due to absence of legal procedure in camps and penalty in the UN instruments. This research concluded that response to GBV in refugee camps is ineffective and not gender sensitive. The recommendations of this research are that: African leaders should respect constitutional provisions and implement the international agreements on protection of refugees and IDPs to which they are signatories; UN should put in place monitoring authorities to ensure compliance with international agreements; female refugees should be empowered morally and with tools to cater for personal and family needs.

Keywords: Female/Women, Gender-Based Violence, Internally Displaced Persons, International Agreements/Instruments, Refugees.

INTRODUCTION

One major cause of displacement is conflicts. Natural disasters can also lead to displacement of people. Conflicts are global phenomena, they occur rages in all the continents of the world. In Africa, dangers, threat to lives and lack of protection of lives and properties arising from wars, conflicts and even natural disasters increase by the day and such situations have led to displacement of large number of people..

In Nigeria, some forms of challenges, relating to insecurity, pose threat to the peace and stability of the country. Some of these include; Boko Haram insurgency in the North, kidnapping in some parts of the South and rising political tension and unrest as a result of bad governance.

Other causes includes: tension between the Ethnic Liberians; and the Americo-Liberians. And poverty brought about by the rubber exports to Firestone going to the political leaders of Liberia for about 50 years. Kieh and Klay (2009) said that the contingent causes of the second Liberia war (1999-2003) consisted of the failure of the post-first civil war transitional processes such as disarmament, demobilization, rehabilitation and re-integration, security sector reform.

In addition, political instability and economic mismanagement accounted for the major causes of the civil war in Sierra Leone. Stonehudson (2002) revealed that, before the outbreak of war, corruption and mismanagement in the diamond sector were part of the main reasons why Sierra Leone became, according to UN figures, the poorest country in the world. With the breakdown of state structures and the effective suppression of civilian opposition, wide corridors were opened for trafficking of arms and ammunition and drugs, all of which eroded national/regional security and facilitated crimes within the country and between Sierra Leone and Liberia and even Guinea. This and more led to the outbreak of civil war in 1991 and the impacts of displacement of huge population of people to Oru (Nigeria), Budumburam (Ghana) and Grafton (Sierra Leone) camps are still with us till today. Thus, this research work examined GBV being faced by refugees in Oru and Buduburam camps in West Africa.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Solomon and Mathews (2002), conflicts rage in many regions across the African continent. These conflicts result in tragic loss of lives, devastation of communities, and displacement of millions of people. Conflicts also undermine economic development, and result in further marginalization of Africa within the global political economy.

According to them, the national governments often play a role in the violent conflicts in African states, compromising the ability of the state to resolve the conflict in Africa. This further indicates the need to look at actors other than states when addressing conflicts in Africa.

Nkundubagenzi (1999) noted that the two most frequent types of conflicts in Africa are disputes over borders between states, and intrastate wars involving groups competing for power or demanding secession from the state. Both of these can be related to the nature of the states in Africa. Thus, it can be said that, the roots of social conflicts are associated with the struggle for maintaining or challenging a dominant power status (Dahrendorf, 1975), frustration generated by relative deprivation (Gurr, 1970), repression of basic needs (Burton, 1982), differences in cultural norms and values (Avruch, 1991), and poverty based on the state of insecurity and bad governance (Draman, 2003).

Bashi (2003) noted that the worst crisis is armed conflict, in the sense that it is widespread. Its consequences are most devastating and it easily leads to other crises. For example, in armed conflicts, lives and property are lost or destroyed. With the destruction of industries and other production activities, unemployment is increased, so is poverty. Education is brought to a standstill as schools are closed, budgets for education are cut down in favour of the purchase of military hardware, etc. According to Bashi (2003), a very quick count shows that about 27 out of the 54 African countries, representing 50% are either in one kind of armed conflict or another or have emerged from one recently. These countries are spread throughout the whole continent- West, Central North, East and Southern Africa. The millions of people, including workers in these countries and their neighbours, are affected by these conflict situations in such areas leading to the displacement of large number of people, movement of refugees and interruptions in trade and communications.

Refugees and Internally Displaced Persons

Usually, the response of civilians during conflicts is to flee for dear life, thereby relocating to a safe place within or outside the borders of the warring country. Where people re-settle within the borders of their country, they become Internally Displaced Persons, if the relocation is outside the borders of the warring country, they are called Refugees. Internally Displaced Persons (IDPs) are defined in the 1998 Guiding Principles on Internal Displacement as;

> persons or group of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effect of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.

Under Article 1(A) 2 of the 1951 Refugee Convention, the term "refugee" shall apply to any person who:

> ... owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence as a result of such events, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it.

Thus, according to this provision, refugees are defined by three basic characteristics:

- They are outside their country of origin or outside the country of their former habitual residence;
- They are unable or unwilling to avail themselves of the protection of that country owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted; and
- The persecution feared is based on at least one of five grounds; race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group, or political opinion (Rulac, 2011).

Giacca, (2011) in the Rule of Law in Armed Conflict Project (RULAC) in Geneva reported that Internally Displaced Persons, now constitute some 22 million persons. According to United Nations High Commissioner for Refugee (UNHCR) the problem of human displacement in Africa is expanding and becoming increasingly complex. Approximately 4.6 million refugees reside in African border camps (UNHCR, 2003) while about 9.5 million of the world's 20 million internally displaced persons are found in Africa (UNHCR, 2000). The United States Committee for Refugees (2003) in comparing refugee populations to local residents claims that eight of the 20 countries with the highest ratios of refugees per local resident are in Africa.

In West Africa, the UNHCR (2012) reported that 280,540 refugees are found in the sub region and approximately 168,000 refugees, mainly Ghanaians, Ivorians, Liberians, Mauritanians and Senegalese, are dispersed in both urban and rural areas in several West African countries. Also, Internally Displaced Monitoring Centre (IDMC, 2012) reported that, over 400,000 people have been displaced by floods sweeping across West Africa caused by torrential rains in August, 2012.

Gender-Based Violence (GBV)

Vann (2002), defines the term gender, as referring to the different characteristics of men and women that are socially determined. Gender refers to the different social roles men and women have in a particular society. It defines culturally acceptable attitudes and behaviour of men and women, including their responsibilities, advantages, disadvantages, opportunities and constraints. Vann (2002) explained that, Gender-Based violence (GBV) encompasses a range of acts of violence committed against females because they are females and against males because they are males, based on how a particular society assigns and views roles and expectations for these people.

The United Nations referred to "gender-based" violence that such violence is rooted in gender inequality and is often tolerated and condoned by laws, institutions and community norms; it is not only a manifestation of gender-inequality, but often serves to enforce it, Heise, Ellsberg and Gottemoeller (1999). GBV is everywhere, in every society, cutting across all races, religions and socio-economic positions that people may have. But some people in certain situations are more vulnerable to become victims of GBV than others. People living in camps have lost protective mechanisms such as social and economic support systems and family and community structures, and are therefore more vulnerable.

Multidimensional GBV Against Female Refugees in Africa

Apart from the studied refugee camps in West Africa, it has been established that all refugees face different types of GBV, but women and girls are more vulnerable.

According to Vann (2002), while men and women can be victims of GBV, women and girls are disproportionately affected. Carpenter (2006) opined that the three specific forms of gender-based violence faced by men in conflict situations are sex-selective massacre, forced conscription, and sexual violence. Others are GBV against "lost boys" and the orphaned or separated child soldiers (Pittaway & Bartolomei 2004).

The types of GBV faced by women includes sexual violence, intimate partner or spouse abuse (domestic violence), emotional and psychological abuse, sex trafficking, forced prostitution, sexual exploitation, sexual harassment, harmful traditional practices (e.g. female genital mutilation (FGM), forced marriage, infanticide of girl children) and discriminatory practices based on gender. In addition to these, Vann (2002) reported that certain categories of women and girls are particularly at risk of GBV, such as single heads of households and/or without family support; unaccompanied girls, girls in foster families, girls in detention, girls associated with armed forces or groups, mentally and physically disabled girls, child mothers and children born out of rape. He noted that, most cases of gender-based violence involve a female survivor and a male perpetrator and that the majority of acts of gender-based violence against boys and men are also committed by male perpetrators.

Rape and Sexual Violence

Solveig (1993) defined rape as any "unwanted, non-consensual, manipulated or coerced form of sexual activity". Facts on Rape (2002) explained that rape has been used as a weapon in war, in racial violence and in everyday life. Rape diminishes a person's dignity and their human rights to safety, choice and consent. It has been found that, insecurity and lack of safety in refugee camps account for most incident of rape and sexual violence. According to Pittaway (2004), in Kakuma Refugee Camp, Kenya, the lack of safety in the camp, particularly for women and girls, is a major issue of concern. The incidence of rape and sexual violence is extremely high and domestic violence is commonplace; and that a range of factors contribute to the high incidence of violence against women.

Furthermore, a 1994 survey of 205 Liberian women and children between 15 and 70 years of age by Hynes and Cardozo (2000) found that 49% had experienced at least one incident of physical or sexual abuse in the hands of Liberian soldiers during the 1989–1997 civil war. Similarly, during the mass genocide and unrest in Rwanda in 1994–1995, Rwanda government and United Nations Special Representative estimates of the number of rapes ranged from 15,700 to 250,000–500,000 respectively; while according to a survey by the International Rescue Committee (1996), Twenty-seven percent (27%) of the 3803 refugees in Kanembwa camp in Burundi experienced sexual violence since becoming a refugee.

In Oru refugee camp Nigeria, in January, 2012, a fifty year old man from the host community raped a 10 year old primary school pupil in the camp as a result of insecurity in and around the camp.

Poverty and Poor Nutrition

Displacement is the primary cause of poverty in the camp. Women who have already lost their homes and work are further subjected to a second degree of poverty by the deplorable situations in refugee camps in Africa, where there is lack of food, congested shelters, lack of clothing, inadequate household items, low education of women among other things. El-Bushra and Fish (2004) reported that, IDPs and refugees have usually been torn from their established environment and their economic resources. As a result they have lost their livelihoods and the means of generating an independent income. They opined that, conditions in camps are often overcrowded, leading to public health problems and a lack of privacy. Palinkas (2003) highlighted the prominence of depression among refugees by reporting the effect of depression on attention, cognitive processing, short-term memory, and vigilance and poor nutrition. Also, taking into account the inability of women to access their gardens to compliment their food requirement, most families depend on only the humanitarian organizations such as World Food Programme (WFP) to provide food. For example, in Kitgum District in Uganda, in September 2003, World Food Programme (WFP) provided food for 1,683 lactating, caregivers and expecting females who were suffering from severe and moderate malnutrition. This has a grave impact on women's ability to care for their children, let alone themselves.

According to Pavlish (2004), among the Congolese refugees in Rwanda, poverty seemed to negatively in?uence marriage relationships. She said some women 'do sex' with other men to buy clothes so they can keep their husbands. Poverty forced others into prostitution in order to procure money for their children's needs.

Forced Prostitution

Forced prostitution, also known as involuntary prostitution, is prostitution or sexual slavery that takes place as a result of coercion by a third party. The term "forced prostitution" or "enforced prostitution" refers to conditions of control over a person who is coerced by another to engage in sexual activity; it applies to those women and girls who choose to be trafficked and to prostitute themselves out of economic necessity with men in host community or with officials in the camp. For example, in Budumburam refugee camp Ghana, forced prostitution is common among the camp residents, who as a result of poverty and lack of food to feed themselves and families offer their bodies to earn a living.

Poor Health

Pavlish's (2005) study on women's experiences in Rwanda camp, indicated that social and cultural structures such as gender roles and relationships strongly influenced women's health and well-being. Some of their experiences include: poverty, because they have little education or skills training; lack of freedom in expressing themselves, especially in relationships with their husbands; frequent episodes of sexually transmitted infections and partner-related sexual violence; frequent pregnancies; and the burden of unbalanced work (the women were expected to provide all food, water and clothing for the family and maintain the health of all family members) are some of their experiences.

Incest

Incest means sexual relations between relatives who are forbidden by law to marry; for example, between father and daughter or mother and son. This is common in war situations where militants force fathers to have sex with their daughters and vice versa. In Oru refugee camp, a woman narrated her ordeals in the hands of the militants during the Sierra Leonean war, when her father was instructed to have sex with her but because the father refused, he was killed and afterwards, about 6 militants had their turns of carnal knowledge of her in a gang rape. Since then till date (February, 2012), the refugee woman menstruates 15 days in a month.

Domestic Violence

Vann (2002) defined domestic violence as a pattern of behaviour characterized by the misuse of power and control by one person over another who are or have been in an intimate relationship. Forms of domestic violence include physical abuse, sexual abuse, emotional abuse, economic abuse, and verbal abuse. Hyder, Noor & Tsui (2007) described the problems of intimate partner violence among Afghan women living in refugee camps in Pakistan. Krishnan (2005) wrote, "In a number of interviews, women and men noted that beating a wife is justified if she has not followed her husband's orders". Population-based surveys have found that between 10-70% of women report being physically assaulted by an intimate male partner at some point in their lives (Heise, 1999).

Discrimination

Discrimination is the unjust or prejudicial treatment of different categories of people, especially on the grounds of race, age, or sex. while Discrimination is discrimination based on gender, especially

discrimination against women. Mateo (2013) described it as any unequal treatment based on gender. It include any situation where a person shows a prejudice towards another that would not occur had they been the opposite sex.

According to El-Bushra and Fish (2004), resettlement policies actively discriminate against women on grounds of both race and gender. Many women lack their own identification papers, as documentation is often issued to male household and this hinders free movement for refugee women.

According to Pittaway & Bartolomei (2004) Refugee women, like many migrant workers, are frequently treated as second-class citizens in their countries of destination. They are discriminated against in terms of wages, job security, working conditions, job-related training, and the right to unionize. They are also subjected to physical and sexual abuse. When illegally employed, they have no access to labour laws. They are not given equal access to the law, nor are they treated equally under the law. Their employment opportunities are limited largely to domestic work or the sex industry, where their right to work, freedom of movement, reproductive rights, right to acquire, change, or retain their nationality, right to health and other basic human rights are violated. The result is that refugee women and their families are more vulnerable to religious, racial, and gender discrimination and exploitation.

Harmful Traditional Practices

El-Bushra and Fish (2004), reported that an additional area of concern relating to gender- based violence is female genital mutilation (FGM), which 130 million women and girls are estimated to have undergone worldwide, and which may be revived among displaced communities as they try to reassert their cultural identity. They cited the example of Sierra Leonean secret societies, into which women are initiated through FGM, which reappeared among refugees in Liberia, resulting in some women who had spoken out against the practice being afraid to return home.

Support from UN and NGOs

To reduce the effects of suffering in camps, it has been reported that UN and some international NGOs give welfare support to refugees, especially women, to improve their standard of living. For example Turner & Simon (2000) reported that in Tanzania, UNHCR invited women to form their own committees or participate in mixed committees in order to facilitate communication between camp authorities and grassroots women.

The women then organised to ensure vulnerable neighbours (e.g. the elderly, pregnant women and separated children) were linked with programmes run by international agencies. Also, the Women's Commission for Refugee Women and Children works to improve the lives and defend the rights of refugee and internally displaced women, children and adolescents. Its activities include advocating their inclusion and participation in humanitarian assistance and protection programmes; providing technical expertise and policy advice to donors and organisations that work with refugees and the displaced.

El-Bushra and Fish (2004) reported that, UNICEF, provides important support to children in war-affected contexts, including protection, support to schools and out-of-school activities while the World Food Programme (WFP) specifically targets women to ensure equal access to food, in the belief that women are the first and fastest solution to alleviating hunger and poverty. WFP's experience is that food placed under women's management reaches children more efficiently and frequently.

United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) Guidelines on protection of female refugees

As part of the response mechanisms in the refugee camps, some preventive and protective measures were put in place by the United Nations to protect the refugees especially women.

Vann (2002), discussed UNHCR 2003 Guidelines on Gender-based Violence Interventions in Humanitarian Settings and identified some minimum prevention measures for the protection of female refugee in camps. These include: guarantee for safe and secure access to services, in particular to separate latrines and washing facilities for women and these facilities should ensure privacy; and that wood collection and distribution sites and playgrounds should also be assessed from a safety perspective. Vann (2002) noted that it is vital to prevent unsafe situations by ensuring women's access to the most essential necessities such as food, water, firewood and cooking fuel. Lack of, or limited access to these items often leads to dangerous situations, for example, fetching water and firewood in remote or bushy areas. Also good lighting of facilities should be provided to prevent violence and/or abuse. It is crucial that common facilities and access roads are well lit, safe access to, and exit from distribution points are essentials as security includes having the paths and entry/exit points well lit at night.

In addition, Vann (2002) reasoned that perpetrators of GBV are sometimes the very people upon whom the survivors depend to assist and protect them, including police, government officials, and humanitarian workers and peacekeepers. She therefore suggested that, all staff members and persons working on behalf of the camp residents should be trained on and sign codes of conduct. To this end, camp management team is expected to ensure safety and security of camp residents by mobilizing the camp population to identify those groups mostly at risk of GBV and agree on community support and monitoring mechanisms, including 'community watch' teams which should include: women; advocate for community policing, monitoring and for security structures to take into consideration high-risk areas, and specific risks faced by women and men of different age groups and backgrounds; and advocate for camp residents, including women, to be included in measures to improve camp security and promote gender parity with 50% involvement of women among all security staff.

Despite all these mechanisms and the laudable provisions of some international instruments on the protection of Refugees and IDPs, insecurity in the camps still strive because none of the instruments has penalty attached to non compliance. This implies that, signatory countries which are parties to these agreements can choose to obey or disobey the provisions of the agreements, suggesting that, the international agreements are toothless, and so are unable to curb insecurity in the refugee camps. Some of the international instruments include, The 1951 Refugee Convention; the Declaration on the Protection of Women and Children in Emergency and Armed Conflict, 1974; Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW); the 1991 UNHCR Guidelines on the Protection of Refugee Women; the 1995, UNHCR Guidelines on the Protection of Refugees Against Sexual Violence; the UN Security Council Resolution 1325, 2000 and Protocol to the African Charter on Human and Peoples Rights of Women in Africa (Maputo Protocol);
Unfortunately, despite the fact that African countries were parties to and signatories to these international Laws, Conventions and Resolutions, there are no adequate protection for refugees residing in camps. Rather what we have in refugee camps are people, especially women and girls who are vulnerable to rape, sexual abuse, forced prostitution, poverty, domestic violence, incest, poor health and nutrition, discrimination, harmful traditional practices among others, exposing them to second degree of insecurity.

Bududuram Refugee Camp

On the other hand, in Bududuram refugee camp Ghana, findings show that out of the 513 respondents interviewed, there were more male respondents (58.9%) than females (41.1%) to the research instrument. Yet a higher percentage of female were more susceptible to GBV. 291 females (61%) and 186 males (39%) out of the 477 respondents had experienced GBV at one time or the other in the camp. In this camp, majority of the camp respondents who were more susceptible to GBV were also between the ages of 21 and 40 (64.90%), This account for the fact that females in that group have responsibilities to cater for themselves and their families. There is also no fence around the camp and this makes the camp insecure.

In Bududuram and Oru camps, all the respondents (100%) said there were no legal procedures to punish perpetrators of GBV in the camp.

METHODOLOGY:

The research design adopted for this study is the descriptive survey method while the research involved both quantitative and qualitative components in order to explore and test constructs of GBV in Refugee camps. The population of the study comprised all Refugee camps in West Africa (See Table 1), while residents of Oru Refugee Camp in Nigeria and Bududuram Refugee camp in Ghana constituted the sample.

Table 1: Refugee Camps in West Africa

S/N	Host Country	Nationality of Refugees	Estimated No. of Refugees **(Dec. 2013)**
1.	Mauritania/Burkina Fasso	Mal	50,000 (Dec., 2013)
2.	Niger	Mali	60,000 (Dec., 2013)
3.	Rep. of Benin	Togo	1,000 (March' 2013)
4.	Côte d'Ivoire	Rwanda	20 (Dec., 2013)
5.	Côte d'Ivoire	Liberia	1,170 (Dec., 2013)
6.	Liberia	Côte d'Ivoire	6,000 (March, 2013)
7.	The Gambia	Sierra Leone, Senegal, Liberia, Somali, Ethiopia, Rwanda, Iraqi and Eritrea	12,000 (Dec., 2013)
8.	Guinea Bissau	Senegal	5,700 (Jan., 2013)
9.	Ghana	Liberia, Sierra Leone, Ivory Coast, Nigeria,	16,016 (Jan., 2013)
10.	Oru, Nigeria	Liberia, Sierra Leone	800 (Dec., 2013)

Non-probability multi-stage sampling procedure was used to select respondents for the study. First, two West-African countries were purposively selected because of the chronological presence of camps for displaced persons. Moreover, their status as Anglophone countries was also instrumental to their selection since this allowed for uniformity in approach to the administration of survey instruments, also for the elimination of language barrier. Thereafter, snowballing sampling technique was used to identify actual displaced persons. Two research instruments were used for data collection in this study; being a semi-structured interview guide and a questionnaire personally administered on the camp residents assisted by two research assistants between January and April, 2012.

DISCUSSION

Oru Refugee Camp

In Oru refugee camp, Nigeria participants of the structured interviews include: 165 camp residents, 8 community leaders who served as key informants, and 3 government officials of the National Commission on Refugee who served as camp managers.

Findings show that there were more female (58.8%) susceptible to GBV than males (41.2%). Also, majority of the camp respondents who were more susceptible to GBV are between the ages of 21 and 40 (43.0%). Individuals in this age group cohort are usually responsible for themselves and other dependants in the camp as well. There is insecurity in the camp as the gate is permanently opened.

CONCLUSIONS:

Many of those who live in refugee camps have lost loved ones, homes, economic status, traditional support systems and cultural structures to wars and violence. Their harrowing experiences are typically compounded in the camps by poverty, insecurity, different types of GBV and discrimination.

Women are more vulnerable to GBV in refugee camps than men. Qualities of preventive, protective and punitive measure put in place in camps are ineffective as UNHCR guidelines are not fully implemented, there is insecurity in the camps and no legal procedure for punishment of perpetrators of GBV. Management of refugee camps are not gender sensitive. UN and international NGOs give welfare support in camps.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Following from the above, the recommendations suggested to serve as panacea for the plights of African female refugees are as follows:

(1) women refugees should be given opportunity to participate in the management and implementation of assistance programmes in the camp up to 50% involvement as recommended by UNHCR. This will put women in vantage position to cater for themselves;

(2) there is a need for advocacy and sensitization of refugees especially in the camps, about the existence of the international agreements and procedure of obtaining redress by survivors.

The dissemination of information to refugees and IDPs should include information about the rights and opportunities available for work, access to services and social or legal support. There should be consideration on how to advocate with government and other assistance providers to address women refugees need as in Tanzania;

(3) signatories to international agreements (especially, African countries) should domesticate, implement and respect the provisions of the agreements in their respective territories;

(4) the United Nations should give teeth to the Conventions to bite violators, by attaching penalties against non- compliance, and ensure punishment of violators. This will serve as deterrence;

(5) the UN should set up a monitoring authority to ensure implementation of these agreements in affected domains. This will serve as enforcement mechanism to make institutional compliance;

(6) international non-governmental organisations (NGOs) should support refugees by coordinating refugee women for economic and social empowerment and other benefiting projects. This will reduce the vulnerability of refugee women and make them equipped to pursue their protection rights;

(7) provision of welfare items to the refugees and other welfare services on the camp by NGOs will help; and

(8) legal practitioners and Human Rights activists should come to the aid of refugees by advocating implementation of these international agreements and assisting refugees on pro bono basis to pursue their rights.

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